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ABSTRACT

The three main purposes for this study were (1) to determine what phonic generalizations were being taught in grade 1 in four of the leading basal reading series: (2) to determine the degree of utility of each generalization within the framework of the grade in which it was presented, after the initial presentation; and (3) to set up a comparative generalization table for grades 1 and 2 of these particular readers. The study was limited to phonic generalizations, four basal reader series, grade levels 1 and 2 of each series, and the exclusion of beginning consonants. Used in the study were the teachers' manuals and the workbooks for the preprimers, primers, first readers, and the two levels of the second grade reader published by Houghton-Mifflin; Scott, Foresman and Company; Macmillan; and Harper and Row. The results were given in the form of lists of generalizations and tables. A critical review of the research on phonics generalizations and references is included. (Author/NH)

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THE UTILITY OF PHONIC GENERALIZATIONS IN THE FIRST GRADE AS TAUGHT BY FOUR LEADING BASAL READERS

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CHAPTFR I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Educators today place a greater emphasis upon reading than upon any other subject in the primary grades. Harris[1] says the reason for this is that reading is both a subject of instruction and a tool for the mastery of other subjects.

There are many different approaches to the teaching of reading. The one most commonly used throughout the United States today is the basal reader approach.[2] That basal readers teach phonics is indicated in their aim of systematic instruction and training in all the basic skills.[3] Bailey[4] states, "Phonic generalizations have always been a part of phonic instruction and we find these generalizations incorporated in the basal reader program."

However, modern educators have begun to question the advisability of teaching many of the phonic generalizations teachers have so painstakingly

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[1]Albert J. Harris, How To Increase Reading Ability (New York: David McKay Co. Inc., 1961), p. 4.

[2]William K. Durr, Reading Instruction; Dimensions and Issues (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1967), p. 14.

[3]Emerald V. Dechant, Improving the Teaching of Reading (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1964), p. 200.

[4]Mildred Hart Bailey, "The Utility of Phonics Generalizations in Grades One Through Six," The Reading Teacher, 20:413, February, 1967.

[5]Theodore Clymer, "The Utility of Phonic Generalizations in the Primary Grades," The Reading Teacher, 16:258, January, 1963.

but blindly taught through the years.[5]

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. It was the purpose of this study (1) to determine what phonic generalizations were being taught in grade one in four of the leading basal reader series;[6] (2) to determine the degree of utility of each generalization within the framework of the grade in which it was presented, after the initial presentation; and (3) to set up a comparative generalizations' table for grades one and two of these particular readers on the basis of information derived from the results of steps one and two of this study.

Importance of the study. The basal readers are used successfully by thousands of teachers throughout the United States.[7] There is, however, evidence to suggest that they are not consistent (1) in the number of generalizations they teach in a specific grade; (2) in the time of presentation (beginning of the year, middle of the year, end of the year); (3) in the sequence of the generalizations; nore (4) in the degree of difficulty of the generalizations chosen for each grade.[8] These inconsistencies may be a few of the factors contributing to the difficulty

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[6]The basal readers used for this study were The New Basic Readers, Scott, Foresman and Co.; Reading for Meaning Series, Revised Edition, Houghton Mifflin Co.; The Macmillan Reading Program, Macmillan Co.; and The Harper and Row Basic Reading Program, Harper and Row Publishers, Inc..

[7]Durr, loc. cit.

[8]Clymer, op. cit., pp. 252-58.

many pupils experience when transferring from one school system to another. It may also affect the transfer of skills from one series to another within the same system.

Knowledge such as that revealed by this study could be helpful to educators when selecting the basal readers to be used as classroom texts and enrichment materials.

Limitations of the study. This study was limited (1) to phonic generalizations; (2) to four basal reader series; (3) to grade levels one and two of each series; and (4) to the exclusion of beginning consonants.

II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Phonics. "Phonics refers merely to the common sounds of English and the manner in which these may be employed in word recognition in the act of reading."[9] Phonic generalizations are, ideally, phonic principles grasped by a child or group of children through frequent use of a familiar letter or group of letters. They deal primarily with the relationship of one or more particular letters in relation or placement to each other; or to other letters in the word. It is often necessary for the teacher to place special emphasis on the specific principle involved in order to promote better understanding and progress on the part of the students.[10]

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[9]George D. Spache, Toward Better Reading (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1963), p. 223.

[10]Roma Gans, Fact and Fiction About Phonics (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc., 1964), p. 91.

Utility. Utility refers to the usefulness of a generalization, whether or not the application of the generalization would aid in the pronunciation of a word.[11]

Analytic methods. Historically the analytic methods of teaching reading are three: the word method, the phrase method, and the sentence method. They are called analytic methods because they begin with the word, phrase or sentence, and these larger units then are broken down into their basic elements.[12]

Synthetic methods. Methods of teaching reading that begin with word elements, with letters, (Alphabet method) with sounds, (Phonic method) or with syllables, (Syllable method) are called synthetic methods. They are so called because the letters, sounds, and syllables must be combined (synthesized) to form words.[13]

ORGANIZATION OF THE REMAINDER OF THE REPORT

Chapter I states the problem and defines the terms used within this paper. This is followed by Chapter II, which is a review of the literature in four parts. Chapter III is a discussion of materials used and methods employed to determine those goals set up in the problem.

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[11] Clymer, loc. cit.

[12] Dechant, op. cit., p. 179.

[13] Ibid., p. 177.

Chapter IV is concerned primarily with the results of the research. The summary and conclusions are included in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

I. BASAL READING INSTRUCTION

All reading programs are based on the theory that there are certain fundamental factors in reading which may be identified by observation and analysis. Although educators do not agree on all factors, they do recognize the following as being important according to Yoakam.[14]

> . . . perception, recognition, comprehension, organization, generalization, appreciation, retention and use of ideas, including oral and written reproductions. These factors operate in the complex called reading in different ways . . .. Modern basal reading programs are planned and organized to develop these factors in a program extending from the readiness period throughout the elementary and secondary schools.

Speaking for basal instruction Dr. Yoakam[15] enumerates these points: (1) Psychological data favor the systematic development of skills. (2) Basal readers reflect current theories in teaching. The processes are natural ones and contribute to the independence of the individual in recognition of the symbols used in reading and writing English. (3) It is necessary to recognize the fact that children have common needs as well as individual ones. (4) Individual differences are

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[14]Gerald A. Yoakam, Basal Reading Instruction (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955), p. 1.

[15]Ibid., pp. 80-81.

provided for in the multi-level texts and supplementary materials. (5) Grading is being abandoned in favor of carefully worked out sequences of skills. (6) The authors and publishers are not responsible for the misuse of basal readers by teachers. (7) Basal readers advocate the material be adjusted to the needs of the child. (8) Basal readers on the whole contain good literature. (9) Many teachers are not capable of developing their own methods of instruction.

Administrators and teachers should keep in mind that basal readers do not purport to teach skills necessary for success in particular area, but rather those skills basic to success in all areas of reading. When administrators and classroom teachers effectively learn to integrate basal reading with recreatory, curricular, preventive, and corrective reading, they will attain a comprehensive reading program which will adequately meet the reading needs of today's child.[16]

II. THE CONTROVERSIAL ASPECTS OF PHONETIC ANALYSIS

Phonics instruction has progressed in past years through a series of evolutions best shown in the parallel arrangement of TABLE I.

Around 1930 phonics was nearly discontinued in the schools. Now it is no longer a question of whether or not to teach phonics, only of how much, at what time, and for what; thus another controversial question is raised. Should schools teach gradual phonics or intensive phonics, intrinsic phonics or systematic phonics? And again, a parallel situation

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[16] Ibid., p. 303.

CHAPTER II

TABLE I

PHONIC PROGRESSION, PAST TO PRESENT

Evolution of Methods	
Alphabet, Alphabet-phonetic, Synthetic, Intensive	Phonetic-alphabet, Whole Word Analytic, Gradual
1620 ABC Catechism The child learned letters, then sounds, and from this he sounded out words, sentences, and pages.[a]	
1680-1776 New England Primer This book dealt first with letters, then with sounds.[b]	
	1780 Blue-back Spelling Book by Webster This book stressed teaching the powers of letters as well as the names.[c]
1880 McGuffey Readers These include a systematic method of teaching phonics.[e]	
	1840 My Little Primer This embodies the word method of teaching reading. It was brought to America from Prussia. It proceeds from the whole word to phrases, to sentences, and then to the story. The word was taught as a whole and subjected to phonic analysis.[d]
1887 Pollard Method of Phonics In this method progression is made from sounds to sentences. It took letters as a starting point and laid a foundation on which to build families of words.[f]	

[a]Rudolph R. Reeder, "The Historical Development of School Readers and Methods in Teaching Reading" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Columbia University, New York, 1900).

[b]John R. Pescosolido, Leo M. Schell, Marie J. Laurent, Reading, Approaches and Rituals (Dubuque, Iowa: Brown Book Company, 1967), p. 1.

[c]Anna D. Cordts, Phonics for the Reading Teacher (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 207.

[d]Pescosolido, op. cit., p. 2. [e]Ibid., p. 3. [f]Cordts, loc. cit.

TABLE I (continued)

Evolution of Methods	
Alphabet, Alphabet-phonetic, Synthetic, Intensive	Phonetic-alphabet, Whole Word Analytic, Gradual
	1894 The Rational Method This method combined both the phonetic and the word methods. It began with a group of words learned by sight followed by intensive training in phonics. Mastery of eighty-four sight words was required before any reading was permitted.[g]
1902 Gordon Synthetic Method Word families were the basis for this method, e.g., at, ake, ine, ilk, etc.[h]	
1912 Beacon Method This method had the initial blending of sounds as its basis. It taught vowel and consonant sounds in isolation. Then they were blended into syllables, followed by words.[i]	
	1928 Word Method of Teaching Phonics The Word Method of teaching phonics was the first really analytic approach used. Starting with the whole word, pupils then proceeded to study each part or component. Children discovered each phonetic unit themselves from a key word, e.g., candy was the key word for ca.[j]

[g] Ibid.

[h] Ibid.

[i] Ibid.

[j] Ibid.

exists. Phonics should be an intrinsic part, but only a part, of the reading program. Neither the look and say method nor the phonic method is wrong; each is incomplete without the other.

Pescosolide[17] sums up the case for phonics in the following statement:

> Phonics has been a focus of controversy for over a hundred and fifty years, partly because it was misunderstood and misapplied. Although it cannot stand alone as a way to teach reading it deserves to be better understood and seen in a larger setting.

III. THE ROLE OF PHONIC ANALYSIS IN THE READING PROCESS

Average people who discuss phonics know only that it is concerned with learning to pronounce words. Obviously, the use of phonics is concerned with pronouncing words, but more than that, it is absolutely essential not only to a beginning reader but also to an adult reader.[18] When a new word is introduced, the reader thinks the sounds with little awareness of the act. Most adults taught phonetic skills in the primary grades are unaware of the total assimilation and constant application of these skills.

"The exact extent to which phonics functions in children's reading is subject to considerable variation, as we shall see later . . . ," relates Cordts.[19]

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[17]John R. Pescosolido, Leo M. Schell, Marie J. Laurent, Reading, Approaches and Rituals (Dubuque, Iowa: Brown Book Co., 1967), p. vi.

[18]Roma Gans, Facts and Fiction About Phonics (Indianapolis: The Bobbs Merrill Co., Inc., 1964), p. 1.

[19]Anna D. Cordts, Phonics for the Reading Teacher (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 8.

When a child first learns to read he has no need for phonics. He identifies his first word by configuration. It would be impossible, however, for a child to have a sight vocabulary large enough for him to master all the words that he will meet and need to know.[20] When he begins to meed many words similar in configuration such as make and made or like and lake, he needs something more than the whole word method to help him attack strange words. It is then that phonetic analysis comes into focus as a technique for independent word perception.

In identifying an unfamiliar word the reader looks first at the whole word with the rest of the sentence in mind. This may be all that is necessary; the child is using context clues. But when this quick glance at the whole does not yield the identification the reader needs to look at the component at the beginning of the word. If the beginning of the word does not reveal its identity, then the reader works out the unfamiliar parts by associating sounds with letters and blending all parts into the whole. He says the word and tries it to see if it makes sense in the sentence. If so, he probably has the right word. Associating sounds with letters is not the same as sounding out words. Phonics is said to be functioning effectively if it aids the reader in coming close enough to the pronunciation of the word to guess what it is.[21]

IV. PHONIC GENERALIZATIONS

Phonic generalizations are being taught in elementary schools, both

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[20]John J. DeBoer and Martha Dallmann, The Teaching of Reading (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966), p. 22.

[21]Cordts, op. cit., pp. 13-14.

in spelling and reading. In reading a great part of the skills program for second grade is devoted to vowel generalizations. Some basal readers attempt to develop vowel generalizations in first grade.

In 1964 two school districts in Glenview, Illinois, cooperated in a pilot study of first grade children to compare the skill of those taught vowel generalizations with the skill of those who had had no direct vowel teaching. At the end of this pilot study it was revealed that those children in the experimental group or those who had been taught vowel generalizations, scored significantly higher than the group with no teaching in this area.[22] In order to answer the question of whether or not vowel generalizations help children become better readers, not just better at phonics, the study was folowed by a second one.

The second study included all first grade pupils in two other school districts. The two districts were similar in socioeconomic level, intelligences of pupils, class size, and school expenditures per pupil. Both were suburban areas.

School district A used the Scott Foresman basal reading program, plus The Economy Press program, which provides for the teaching of vowel generalizations. School district B used the Houghton Mifflin program in which no vowel generalizations are taught.

Results indicated that children taught vowel generalizations in first grade scored higher on a test of nonsense syllables than those who had not had this instruction. The same children, however, scored lower

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[22] Robert L. Hillerich, "Vowel Generalizations and First Grade Achievement," Elementary School Journal, 67:246-50, February, 1967.

on a test of reading achievement than those who had had no vowel teaching. This study, then, presents the question "Should teachers use valuble time to teach specific vowel generalizations in first or second grade?"[23]

Unless a child is to memorize all words or all combinations of spellings representing sounds, he needs to make generalizations. These require organized experience with sounds and spellings along with the mental capacity to see the relationships between sounds and spellings. Skill is required first to make the generalizations and second to correctly apply them. Psychologists claim that a six year old is not likely to generalize. At seven a child becomes interested in classifying things and can begin to look for cause-effect relationships; therefore, he should be able to apply generalizations in attempts to unlock words.[24]

In 1963 Theodore Clymer[25] made a study of phonic generalizations being taught in the primary grades, using the manuals of four basal readers as his source. He discovered five general types of generalizations: those dealing with (1) vowels, (2) consonants, (3) endings, (4) syllabication, and (5) miscellaneous relationships. He found there were fifty vowel generalizations, fifteen consonant generalizations, and twenty-eight generalizations each in the ending and syllabication groups. A statement was considered a separate generalization when the phrasing was different from another statement expressing the same idea. Only eleven of the fifty vowel generalizations were common to all four series. Forty-five of the fifty generalizations were somewhat

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[23] Ibid.

[24] Emmett Albert Betts, "Phonics: Practical Considerations Based on Research," Elementary English, 33:357-77, October, 1956.

[25] Clymer, loc. cit.

arbitrarily selected for study. The main criterion was concerned with the question of whether or not the application of the generalization would aid or hinder in the pronunciation of a particular word.

Clymer compiled a list of some twenty-six hundred words from the basal readers and the words from the Gates Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades. Using Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary to check phonetic respelling and the syllabic division of the words, Clymer checked the forty-five generalizations against the composite word list for conformity.

A per cent of utility was computed for each generalization and criteria was established in order to determine what constituted a reasonable degree of application. The first criterion was that the word list must contain twenty words to which the generalization might apply. The second criterion was a utility of seventy-five per cent. If the pupil applied the generalization to twenty words, it must aid in arriving at the right pronunciation in fifteen words out of twenty. By using these criteria, only eighteen of the forty-five generalizations proved to be useful.

Clymer's study was used as the basis of a similar one by Bailey[26] to determine if the results would vary greatly when phonic generalizations were applied to a vocabulary list for grades one through six. Using a word list compiled from eight basal reader series, Bailey completed a composite list of 5,773 words. Only words appearing in two or more of the eight series were included. Place names, proper names and foreign words were excluded.

Using Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary as a check on phonetic respelling and Clymer's formula for utility, a per cent of utility was

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[26]Bailey, op. cit., pp. 413-18.

computed for each of the forty-five generalizations identified by Clymer. The results of this study showed that only six generalizations were simple to understand and, with few exceptions, were applicable to large numbers of words.[27]

Robert Emans[28] based another study on Clymer's phonic generalizations. The procedures were the same as those used by Clymer except for the composition of the word list. This study used a random sample of ten per cent of the words beyond the primary level in The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words[29] by Thorndike and Lorge. This study went a step further than Clymer's as it applied the primary generalization and its secondary generalization or exception to the word. For example the generalization, "In the phonogram ie the i is silent and the e has the long sound," is an exception to, "When there are two vowels side by side the first is long and the second one is silent."

If a primary generalization fails to aid a child in arriving at the right pronunciation, the secondary generalization may be applied. Thus, the manner and order in which a generalization is applied may be as important as the generalization itself.

Clymer's study showed eighteen generalizations to be useful. This study found sixteen. Thirteen were found useful in both studies, but four found useful on the primary level failed to pass the test beyond that level. Three not helpful on the primary level promised adequate utility in the

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[27] Ibid.

[28] Robert Amans, "The Usefulness of Phonic Generalizations Above the Primary Grades," The Reading Teacher, 20:419-25, February, 1967.

[29] E.L. Thorndike, and Lorge, The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words (New York: Teacher's College, 1944).

intermediate grades and beyond.

It can therefore be concluded that different generalizations may need to be learned at different grade levels.

CHAPTER III

MATERIALS USED AND METHODS EMPLOYED

The materials used for this study were the teachers' manuals and the workbooks for the pre-primers, primers, first readers, and the two levels of the second grade reader in each of the series studied.

The usual school year contains thirty-six weeks. Since many reading programs allow approximately six weeks as a readiness period in the first grade, this study was based on that specific period of time. When reference was made to the initial time of introduction of a generalization, it was made on the basis that the first period was the first six weeks; the second period was the second six weeks, etc.

It was necessary to assume that a child would cover all materials in his grade level. The number of pages in the complete course for each grade was compiled and divided by thirty in the first grade (thirty-six weeks comprising the school year minus the six weeks readiness period), and by thirty in the second grade for here the first six weeks is usually used for review, in order to approximate the number of pages which would constitute a week's work.

The manuals and workbooks were systematically checked for the initial presentation of a generalization. When generalization was introduced the number of the page on which it first appeared was checked against the time sequence to determine if it fell in the first six weeks, the fourth six weeks, or where in the year's work.

After the time sequence was established, the vocabulary from that point to the end of the grade level was checked by means of the vocabulary

in the back of each book for these two things: (1) how many words in the rest of the year's work contain that phonic element and appear to follow the generalization; and, (2) how many of those words occur in which that phonic element appears and the generalization does apply?

The last step to be implemented was the numerical computation of the per cent of utility of the generalization for that particular grade level. Clymer's[32] method of computation was used for this with this limitation. The requirement that the examples of word list must contain that generalization at least fifteen was not adhered to. This was done by dividing the number of words to which the generalization applied by the total number to which it could have applied.

Thus, if the generalization "when a word contains only one vowel and it is at the end of a word, then that vowel is usually long," was presented in the fourth six weeks, all the succeeding words in the book would be checked for the number having only one vowel at the end. All words presented prior to this time would be excluded because they were considered to be a part of the child's sight vocabulary. Therefore, they were not included in the per cent of utility computation.

The final step included a comparative table, tabulated from these computations, illustrating the difference in time of presentation and percent of utility after presentation of the generalizations listed in each series.

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[32]Clymer, loc. cit.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results of the study are contained in this chapter. They are in the form of lists of generalizations from each book of a series, a table showing the time at which generalization was presented in the framework of each individual series, a table showing the percent of utility of a generalization as applied to the vocabulary of the text in which it was introduced , from the time of introduction on, and lastly a table presenting the utility of those generalizations introduced in at least two of the first grade programs.

Houghton-Mifflin

First Grade Program

Readiness

Pre-primers

Tip

Tip and Mitten

The Big Show

Primer

Jack and Janet

First Reader

Up and Away

Time Intervals

Period	Work Covered
1	Readiness.
2	Unit 1 in Tip to unit 3 in Tip and Mitten.
3	Unit 4 in Tip and Mitten to unit 7 in The Big Show.
4	Unit 8 in The Big Show to unit 14 in Jack and Janet.
5.	Unit 15 in Jack and Janet to unit 5 in Up and Away.
6	Unit 6 in Up and Away to unit 26.

Houghton-Mifflin

Generalizations

Jack and Janet (Primer)

Gen. 1. Sometimes we add the letters ing to a word to make another word. (Unit 22; T.M. p. 243; text, p. 134-139; wk. bk., p. 79.)

Gen. 2. (A) The ed at the end of wanted stands for a vowel sound together with the sound that d usually stands for. (Unit 25; T.M., p. 273; text, p. 153-158; wk. bk., p. 92.)

(B) The letters ed at the end of jumped stand for the sound that t usually stands for. (Unit 26; T.M., p. 282; text, p. 159-163; wk. bk., p. 96.)

(C) The letters ed at the end of pulled stand for the sound that the letter d usually stands for. (Unit 27; T.M., p. 292; text, p. 164-166; wk. bk., p. 102.)

(D) The letters ed at the end of a word can stand for the sound of a vowel and d, the sound t alone usually stands for, and the sound that d alone usually stands for.

Up and Away (1_2)

Gen. 1. When two ee's come together in a word they usually say the sound you hear in see. (T.M. p. 20; Text p. 7-14; Wk. bk.p.1-4).

Gen. 2. When two oo's come together in a word they usually may stand for

one of two sounds, such as the sound you hear in look or soon. (Unit 1; T.M., p. 20; text, p. 7-14; wk. bk., p. 1-7.)

Gen. 3. When the letters ed are added to a word they may add just the sound that d usually stands for or just the sound that t usually stands for, or a vowel sound plus the sound that d usually stands for. (Unit 2; T.M., p. 45; text, p. 15-19; wk. bk., p. 8-11.)

Gen. 4. (A) When the letter that comes right after c is either an e or an i, the c stands for the s sound.

(B) When the letter that comes right after c is neither an e nor an i, it stands for the k sound.

(C) When you meet a strange word that ends in the letters ce you can almost always be sure that it ends in the s sound. (Unit 6; T.M., p., 87-88; text, p. 38-42; wk. bk., p. 26-29.)

Gen. 5. (A) When the letter that comes right after g is either an i or an e the g often stands for the j sound.

(B) When the letter that comes after the g is neither an i nor an e it usually stands for the g sound.

(C) When you meet a strange word that ends in ge you can almost always be sure that the word ends with the sound that j usually stands for. (Unit 10; T.M., p. 129; text, p. 65-75; wk. bk., p. 50.)

Gen. 6. In some words the last consonant is doubled before the ending ing is added. The same thing is true of such words when the ending

ed is added. (Unit 13; T.M., p. 163; text, p. 80-96; wk. bk., p. 58-61.)

Gen. 7. When the letters ing are added to a word that ends with a silent e, that e is dropped before the ing is added. (Units 14, 15, 16, and 17; T.M., p. 206; text, p. 122-130; wk. bk., p. 74-78.)

Gen. 8. The letter a is often added at the beginning of a word to make another word. When a word has been made in that way the a stands for the sound it stands for at the beginning of along and away. (Units 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22; T.M., p. 257; text, p. 153-157; wk. bk., p. 95-96.)

Gen. 9. Quite a few words have been made by adding the letters be at the beginning of other words. In such a word the letters be stand for the same sound they stand for in the word belong. (Units 23, 24, 25, and 26; T.M., p. 267; text, p. 158-163; wk. bk., p. 99.)

Scott, Foresman and Company

First Grade Program

Readiness

Pre-primers

Sally, Dick and Jane

Fun With Our Family

Fun Wherever We Are

Primer

Fun With Our Friends

First Reader

More Fun With Our Friends

Time Intervals

Period	Work Covered
1	Readiness and 1st pre-primer.
2	P. 1 in 2nd pre-primer to p. 20 (3rd lesson) in 3rd pre-primer.
3	P. 21 in 3rd pre-primer to p. 34 in primer.
4	P. 34 in primer to p. 125 in primer.
5	P. 126 in primer to p. 75 in First Reader.
6	P. 76 in Reader to p. 187.

Scott, Foresman and Company

Time Intervals

Fun With Our Friends (Primer)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. When the 's is added to words we call those words possessives if they show someone owns something. (T.M. p. 78; text p. 43-47; wk. bk. p. 22 and 23.)

Gen. 2. The ending ed may stand for any one of three sounds. (T.M. 171; text, p. 108-112; wk. bk., 56 and 57.)

Gen. 3. The ending ing is added to known words to make new words. (T.M. p. 183; text, p. 117-120; wk. bk., 60 and 61.)

Gen. 4. S can be added to words for things, people, and animals, and to the words for what we do. (T.M. p. 196; text, p. 126-129; wk. bk., p. 64, 65, 66.)

More Fun With Our Friends (1_2)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. A compound word is two short words spoken or printed together to show that their meanings are combined into one word. (T.M., 28 text, p. 11-14, p. 3, 4; wk. bk.)

Gen. 2. New words are made by adding S, ed, ing to a root word. (Inferred

generalization) (T.M., p. 58; text, p. 27-31; wk. bk., p. 11 and 12.)

Gen. 3. (A) An apostrophe indicates that a letter or letters has been left out of a word.

(B) N't at the end of a word means that not is the last part of the word. (T.M., p. 136; text, p. 96-99; wk. bk., p. 41 and 42.)

Gen. 4 New words can be made by adding er to some words. (T.M. p. 195; text, p. 156-160; wk. bk., p. 64-66.)

THE MACMILLAN READING PROGRAM

FIRST GRADE PROGRAM

READINESS

Pre-primers

Opening Books

A Magic Box

Things You See

Primer

Worlds of Wonder

Discovery Book

First Reader

Lands of Pleasure

Discovery Book

Time Intervals

Period	Work Covered
1	Readiness
2	Pre-primers
3	p. 10 W.ofW. to p. 101.
4	p. 101 W.ofW. to end of W.ofW.
5	p. 10 L.ofP. to p. 104.
6	p. 104 L.ofP. to the end.

The Macmillan Reading Program

Time Intervals

Worlds of Wonder (Primer)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. Short a says the sound you hear in at. (T.M. p. 69; text p. 19-22; Dis. bk. p. 8-11.)

Gen. 2. Short i in a word has the sound you hear in it. (T.M. p. 55; text p. 15-18; Dis. bk. p. 5-7.)

Gen. 3. Short a in a word says the sound you hear in at. (T.M. p. 65; text p. 19-22; Dis. bk. p. 8-11.)

Gen. 4. When the letter k at the beginning of a word is followed by the letter n, the k is often silent. (T.M. p. 94; text p. 27-32; Dis. bk. p. 16-19.)

Gen. 5. Short u has the sound we hear in up. (T.M. p. 100; text p. 33-37; Dis. bk. p. 20-23.)

Gen. 6. The letters ow have two sounds, one as in show and the other as in now. (T.M. p. 137; text p. 47-50; Dis. bk. p. 30-32.)

Gen. 7. One sound of e is the short e sound as in help. (T.M. p. 149; text p. 51-55; Dis. bk. p. 33-36.)

Gen. 8. We make new words by adding the letter s to words we know. (T.M. p. 155; text p. 51-55; Dis. bk. p. 33-36.)

Gen. 9. When two consonants come together in a word, they say the same sound as one alone. (T.M. p. 223; text p. 88-91; Dis. bk. p. 57-59.)

Gen. 10. The double o in a sentence sometimes has the sound you hear in to. (T.M. p. 300; text p. 125-126; Dis. bk. 84-87.)

Gen. 11. Short o has the sound you hear in rocket. (T.M. p. 314; text p. 127-130; Dis. bk. p. 88-91.)

Lands of Pleasure

Generalizations

Gen. 1. Silent e at the end of a word which has one other vowel tells us that the other vowel is usually long.

(T.M. p. 70; text p. 22-26; Dis. bk. p. 14-18)

Gen. 2. When a word begins with wr we hear only the r sound for, the w is silent. (T. M. p.107; text p. 38-41; Dis. p.26-27).

Gen. 3. The letter q is always followed by the letter u.

(T. M. p. 111; text p. 55-62; Dis. bk. 38-41

Gen. 4. We can make new words which show that something belongs to someone by adding 's to words for people, places and things. (T. M. p. 227; text p. 96-99; Dis. bk.p. 65-67).

Gen5. When the letters ea come together the a is silent and the e may have the long sound as in eat or the short sound as in ready.(T. M. p. 263; text p. 115-124; Dis.bk. p. 78-80).

Gen. 6. y at the end of a word may have the long sound as in cry or the short sound as in Mary.

(T. M. p. 253; text p. 111-114; Dis. bk. p. 74-77).

Gen. 7. When i and e come together in a word only one of them is heard. Sometimes we hear the sound of i as in pie. Other times we hear e as in thief. (T. M. p. 293; text p. 134-139; Dis. p. 88-9).

Gen. 8. oi in noise and oy in boys have the same sound.
(T.M. p. 303; text p. 140-146; Dis. bk. p.90-92).

Gen 9. When a word has only one vowel the vowel usually has the short sound. (T.M.p. 307; text p. 140-146; Dis. p. 90-92).

Gen 10. When a consonant is doubled in a word we hear a sound for only one of the letters.
(T. M. p. 352; text p. 165-171; Dis. bk.p. 102-104).

Harper and Row Basic Reading Program

First Grade Program

Readiness

Pre-primers

Janet and Mark

Outdoors and In

City Days, City Ways

Just For Fun

Primer

Around the Corner

First Reader

Real and Make-Believe

Time Intervals

Period	Material Covered
1	Readiness.
2	Pre-primers.
3	Unit 1-18, Around the Corner.
4	Unit 19-37, Around the Corner.
5	Unit 1-20 Real and Make-Believe.
6	Unit 21-42, Real and Make-Believe.

Harper and Row

Generalizations

Around the Corner (Primer)

Gen. 1. We can make new words by adding s to some words we know. (T.M., p. 43; text, p. 2-5; wk. bk., p. 1-3.)

Gen. 2. We can make new words by putting two small words that we know together. (T.M., p. 52; text, p. 6-10; wk. bk., p. 4-6.)

Gen. 3. When a and y come together in a word they say ā. (T.M., p. 75; text, p. 23-28; wk. bk., 13-15.)

Gen. 4. When er comes together in a word it has the sound you hear in mother. (T.M., p. 96; text, p. 35-40; wk. bk., p. 22-24.)

Gen. 5. We can make new words by adding ing to some words we know if they are doing words. (jumping) (T.M., p. 103; text, p., 41-44; wk. bk., p. 25-27.)

Gen. 6. When a and r come together in a word they stand for the sound they stand for the sound Mark. (T.M., p. 206; text, p. 103-106; wk. bk., 73-75.)

Gen. 7. When i is followed by r (ir) it stands for the same sound that er stands for. (T.M., p. 234; text, p. 126-128; wk. bk., 88-91.)

Gen. 8. The letter y at the end of a word usually stands for the sound you hear at the end of daddy. (T.M., p. 257; text, p. 141-143; wk. bk., p. 101-103.)

Gen. 9. Sometimes ow says the sound we hear in show. (T.M., p. 268; text, p. 147-152; wk. bk., p. 107-109.)

Real and Make-Believe (1_2)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. We make new words by adding the endings ed, s, and ing to some words we already know. (T.M., p. 46; text, p. 5-7; wk. bk., p. 1-3.)

Gen. 2. Compound words are made by putting together two small words. (T.M., p. 55; text, p. 11-13; wk. bk., p. 7-9.)

Gen. 3. Ew says the sound you hear in new. (T.M., p. 61; text, p., 14-18; wk. bk., p. 10-12.)

Gen. 4. Ow usually says the sound you hear in owl. (T.M., p. 66; text, 19-21; wk. bk., p. 13-15.)

Gen. 5. A says its name when there is an e at the end of the word as in cake. (T.M., p. 76; text, p. 24-26; wk. bk., 19-21.)

Gen. 6. i says its name when an e appears at the end of the word as in dime. (T.M., p. 124; text, p. 77-79; wk. bk., p. 46-48.)

Gen. 7. Very often when you hear the long sound of e the word will have two ee's written together. (T.M., p. 129; text, p. 80-85;

wk. bk., p. 49-51.)

Gen. 8. ur followed by says the sound you hear in hurt. (T.M., p. 175; text, p. 131-133; wk. bk., p. 77-79.)

Gen. 9 When we want to show that something belongs to someone we add an ' (apostrophe) s to their name. (T.M., p. 175; text, p. 131-133; wk. bk., p. 77-79.)

Gen. 10. ou says the sound you hear in out. (T.M., p. 180; text, p. 134-137; wk. bk., p. 80-82.)

Gen. 11. o usually says its name when e appears at the end of the word as in poke. (T.M., p. 190; text, p. 142-144; wk. bk., p. 86-88.)

Gen. 12. We can make new words by adding ly to some words we already know. (T.M., p. 195; text, p. 145-50; wk. bk., p. 89-91.)

Gen. 13. When y comes at the end of a word it is a vowel and says the sound you hear at the end of daddy. (T.M., p. 207; text, p. 159-166; wk. bk., p. 95-97.)

Gen. 14. A silent e at the end of a word tells us the a, i, or o in the word says its name. (T.M., p. 228; text, p. 180-184; wk. bk., p. 107-109.)

Gen. 15. If a word ends in y we must change the y to i before we add the ending es. (T.M., p. 239; text, p. 188-191; wk. bk., 113-115.)

Gen. 16. We often hear er at the first end of words. (T.M., p, 246; text, p. 201-204; wk. bk., p. 119-121.)

TABLE II

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF GENERALIZATIONS OF FIRST GRADE PROGRAMS
**** OF FOUR BASAL TEXTS: WITH TIME OF INITIAL PRESENTATION

Per.	Houghton-Mifflin	Scott, Foresman	Macmillan	Harper, Row
1.	Readiness	Readiness	Readiness	Readiness
2	PP	PP	PP	PP
3			Short a Short i k followed by n Short u Two sounds of ow Short e Adding s to roots Two con.alike one sound	Adding s to roots Compounds ay together e followed by r add. ing
4		's shows possession ed may stand for 3 sounds Adding ing to roots Adding s to roots	One sound of double oo Short o as in rocket	a followed by r i followed by r y at end of a word ow as in show
5	Adding ing to root Three sounds of ed at end of word Sound of ee Sound of oo	Compounds Adding s, ed, ing to roots	Silent e preceding vowel long Silent w in wr Q always followed by u 's-shows possession	Endings ed, s, ing Compounds Sound of ew Sound of ow Silent e at end long a Silent e at end long i Double ee

TABLE II ((continued)

Per.	Houghton-Mifflin	Scott,Foresman	Macmillan	Harper-Row
6	C followed by i or e G followed by i or e Doubling the last con. adding ing and ed Dropping silent e adding ing Adding a at the beginning of a word Adding be at the beginning of a word	(') missing letters N't is not Adding er	In ea the e is long the a is silent y at the end of a word i and e together oi and oy only one vowel in a word doubling a con. at the end	U followed by r 's shows possession ou as in out silent e long o adding ly y at the end of a word Silent e, long a,i,o Change y to i, add es Adding er *

* There were many exercises developing an awareness of the short vowel sounds but no generalizations drawn other than giving key words.

TABLE III

GENERALIZATIONS OF EACH SERIES: NUMBER OF WORDS IN THAT SERIES TO WHICH THEY MIGHT BE EXPECTED TO APPLY IN THAT GRADE LEVEL AFTER INITIAL PRESENTATION: PERCENT OF UTILITY COMPUTED BY CLYMER'S FORMULA

(First Grade)

Scott Foresman

Generalization	Words in remaining work to which it appeared to apply	Exceptions	Utility
's (Possession)	18	0	100%
Adding s, ed, ing to words	50	0	100%
n't (Contraction)	3	0	100%
Ending er	8	0	100%
Compounds	25	0	100%
Three sources of ed at end of a word	29	0	100%

Generalizations	Words in remaining work to which it appeared to apply	Exceptions	Utility
	Houghton Mifflin		
ei	5	0	100%
oo	7	0	100%
Three sounds of ed	23	0	100%
Adding ing	18	0	100%
c followed by i or e, c has s sound	4	0	100%
Letter following c is not i or e, c has k sound	16	2	88%

(continued)

(Houghton-Mifflin continued)

Houghton

Generalization	Words in remaining work to which it appeared to apply	Exceptions	Utility
When word ends in ce	2	0	100%
g followed by i or e	1	0	100%
g followed by anything other than i or e	5	0	100%
Word ending in ge	1	0	100%
Double the ending consonant before adding ing	3	0	100%
Droup silent e before adding ing	4	0	100%
a in front of a word	0	0	0%
be in front of a word	1	0	100%

Macmillan

Generalizations	Words in remaining work to which it appeared to apply	Exceptions	Utility
kn (k is silent)	3	0	100%
Two sounds of ow	12	0	100%
Adding s to roots	45	0	100%
Two consonants alike (hear one)	34	0	100%
One sound of oo (as in too)	9	1 (looking)	88%
Silent e (one other vowel which is long)	20	6	70%
wr together (the w is silent)	1	0	100%
qu	11	0	100%

(continued)

Macmillan
(continued)

Generalizations	Words in remaining work to which it appeared to apply	Exceptions	Utility
's (Possession)	7	0	100%
ea (e is long, a is silent)	4	1 (heard)	75%
y at end of words (cry, Mary)	4	1 (stay)	75%
ie (only 1 letter is heard)	2	0	100%
oi and oy	1	0	100%
One vowel in a word is usually short	18	16 (walk, bend)	88%
Double consonant adds the ing sound	3	0	100%

Harper and Row Basic Reading Program

Generalization	Words in remaining work to which it appeared to apply	Exceptions	Utility
Adding s	132	0	100%
Compounds	21	0	100%
ay together	4	0	100%
er	19	0	100%
Adding ing	65	11 (give, swim skates, run)	8.3%
ar	18	2 (Mary, quarter)	88%
ir	3	2 (fire,tire)	33%
y at end usually stands for sound of daddy	9	4 (they, day, away, Saturday)	
ow	8	1 (owl)	75%
New word by adding ed, s, ing	239	12	90%
Sound of ew	2	0	100%
ow as in owl	1	0	100%
a with silent e	5	0	100%
i with silent e	3	0	100%
Double e	5	0	100%
u followed by r	1	0	100%
's	0	0	0
ou as in out	1	0	100%
ō with silent e	0	0	0
Adding ly	1	0	100%
y at end of a word says the sound you hear in daddy	2	0	100%

Harper and Row Basic Reading Program

(continued)

Generalization	Words in remaining work to which it appeared to apply	Exceptions	Utility
Silent e, long a, i, o	8	0	100%
Change y to i before es	1	0	100%
er at the end of words	2	0	100%

TABLE IV

GENERALIZATIONS APPEARING IN AT LEAST TWO OF THE SERIES: PERIOD OF PRESENTATION, THEIR PERCENT OF UTILITY IN FRAMEWORK OF GRADE AS COMPUTED BY CLYMER'S FORMULA*

Generalizations	Series and Period	Utility
Adding ing, ed, s to a root	(HR-3) (SF-4) (HM-5) (Mac-3)	100%
Three sounds of ed at the end of a word	(SF-4) (HM-5)	100%
Sound of ee	(HR-5) (HM-5)	100%
Compounds	(HR-3) (SF-5)	100%
Sounds of oo	(Mac-4) (HM-5)	100%
y at the end of a word	(HR-4) (Mac-6)	52%
Adding er to a word	(HR-6) (SF-6)	100%
Two sounds of ow	(Mac-3) (HR-4)	100%
Silent e at end of word	(Mac-5) (HR-5)	78%
's shows possession	(SF-4) (Mac-5) (HR-6)	100%

*Only the last part of Clymer's criteria was used in this level since vocabulary from the point of iniation on was not great enough to warrant this restriction.,

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Before there is any attempt to evaluate this study the writer would like to clarify the following things:

1.) This study was in no way designed to show one series of basal texts as superior to another.

2.) Statements picked by the writer to be generalizations or inferred generalizations may not necessarily have been meant as such by the authors of the various series, while others meant as generalizations may have been overlooked.

3.) Many exercises integrating an audio-visual awareness of vowel sounds were in all of the teacher's manuals and it may well be that this is the better way to approach the independence we would like to see in the first grade child.

Conclusions. The observation one makes first from looking at TABLE P. is the complete lack of generalizations of any kind in the first four periods in the Houghton-Mifflin series, and the first three periods in the Scott, Foresman series. As one examines the generalizations which are presented in the succeeding periods he sees that Scott, Foresman has presented no vowel generalizations as such, and Houghton-Mifflin has included only the most stable of vowel sounds.

The procedure followed by Houghton-Mifflin and Scott, Foresman contrasts sharply with that used by Macmillan and the Harper, Row series. The Macmillan series introduces four short vowels plus one vowel diphthong in the third period. Harper,Row begins by introducing the vowel digraph and e followed by r. Each of these two series, Macmillan and Harper, Row continue to stress vowels but in a somewhat different way: Macmillan develops generalizations for the short as well as the long vowels and some digraphs and diphthongs. Harper,Row develops generalizations for the vowels followed by r, the long vowels, some vowel digraphs and diphthongs but the work on short vowels is all of an auditory nature.

TABLE II p35 tends to verify a statement made on p.2 of this paper that there is inconsistency in the (1) number of generalizations taught in a specific grade; (2) in the time of introduction; (3) in the sequence of generalizations; and (4) in the degree of difficulty of the generalizations.

The results of TABLE III p 37 and continued, demonstrate the fact that the vocabulary of all basal readers is controlled to give maximum success in the application of any phonic generalizations presented.

TABLE IV .p. 42 gives the vowel generalizations which two or more of the series studied felt worthwhile to include in the first grade program. This table shows that Harper, Row presented eight of the generalizations common to two or more of the series studied; Macmillan presented six; Scott, Foresman presented five; and Houghton- Mifflin presented four. Here again we see the carefulness with which the authors of basal texts choose their material,for we find only the generalization dealing with the sounds of y at the end of a word falling below the degree of utility deemed necessary by Clymer.

Thoughts For the Reader's Consideration.

1). Although there is a variety in the beginning choice of generalizations and time for introducing those generalizations in the first grade, the programs of the four basal readers studied did appear to present, each in its own way, much the same variety of generalizations by the end of the second grade program.

2). The basal readers appear to live up to their promise of a controlled situation in the presentation of phonic generalizations.

3). It would seem logical that a child, going from a system using a series such as Scott Foresman or Houghton-Mifflin, where little or no vowels are taught in the first grade, into a system such as Macmillan or Harper-Row, where there is a high incidence of those generalizations, would experience some frustration and confusion.

4). That a child going from a system presenting a high incidence of generalizations into one which does not and, therefore, does not have the vocabulary which would result in a high degree of utility for application of such generalizations might experience similar frustration and difficulties.

5). Upon what group of people does the responsibility rest for sta-stabilizing this part of our educational program?

Recommendations. That there be more studies such as that by Hillerich in Glenview, Illinois, in 1964, referred to on page 12 of this study, to determine whether the controversy over generalizations is a worthy one (Do children really read better?); and on the basis of the results of such studies, a criteria for presentation of these self-helping statements be developed to aid in the planning of all basal series.

A CONTINUATION OF THE STUDY OF VOWEL GENERALIZATIONS; WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF THE SECOND GRADE PROGRAM

The preceding study on the utility of vowel generalizations in the first grade brought up the following questions.

1). Do the series which kept vowel generalizations to a minimum in the first grade continue to do so in the second grade?

2). Does the number and time of introduction for vowel generalizations vary as much in the second grade as in the first grade?

3). Do the series which introduced vowels in grade one expand or simply maintain the first grade program in the second grade?

4). Does the percent of utility of the generalizations tend to increase or decrease in grade two?

The materials and procedures were the same for this study as for that on the first grade texts, with two exceptions.

1). It was felt that the vocabulary of the second grade was large enough to make application of Clymer's criteria. Complete evaluation formula possible, namely:

   a). The word list must contain a minimum of twenty words to which the generalization might apply.

   b). The generalization must have a percent of utility of at least seventy-five percent.

2). Since the tables on utility of the generalizations in the individual series did little more than point out the carefulness with which the basal vocabularies are chosen, a similar table was not

computed for the second grade series. The eleven generalizations evaluated were selected because they were common to two or more of the series studied.

The results of this study are set forth in the following pages.

The Houghton-Mifflin Reading Program

Second Grade Program

Readers

Come Along 2_1 and Workbook

On We Go 2_2 and Workbook

Time Intervals

Period	Material Covered
1	Review
2	Come Along, p. 7 to p. 103.
3	Come Along, p. 104 to p. 204.
4	Come Along, p. 205 to On We Go, p. 99.
5	On We Go, p. 100 to p. 216.
6	On We Go, p. 217 to the end.

The Houghton-Mifflin Reading Program

Second Grade Program

Come Along 2_1

Generalizations

Gen. 1. When a is the only vowel in a word and has one or more consonants after it, it usually stands for the short a sound. (T.M. Unit 4, p. 66; text pp. 32-42; work bk. p. 10.)

Gen. 2. When a word ends with the vowel e and the only other vowel in the word is an a, with one or more consonants between it and the e, the a almost always stands for the long a sound. We call that e a silent e because it doesn't stand for any sound of its own. (T.M. Unit 4, p. 66; text pp. 32-42; work bk. pp. 10, 15, and 20.)

Gen. 3. We can add er to words we already know to make new words (talker). (T.M. Unit 5, p. 76; text pp. 43-47; work bk. p. 27.)

Gen. 4. When the letters ay come together at the end of a word they practically always stand for the long a sound. (T.M. Unit 6, p. 88; text pp. 48-54

Gen. 5. When the letters a and i come right together in a word they usually stand for the long a sound, but not always. (T.M. Unit 6, p. 88; text pp. 48-54; work bk. p. 12.)

Gen. 6. When e is the only vowel in a word and has one or more consonants after it, it usually stands for the short e sound. (T.M. Unit 10, p. 127; text p. 78; work bk. p. 33.)

Gen. 7. When e is followed by r it has the sound you hear in her. (T.M. Unit 10, p. 127; text p. 78; work bk. p. 33.)

Gen. 8. When e is the only vowel in a word and comes last it usually stands for the long e sound. (T.M. Unit 10, p. 128; text p. 78; work bk. p. 33.)

Gen. 9. When two ee's come together in a word they almost always stand for the long e sound. (T.M. Unit 10, p. 128; text p. 78; work bk. pp. 37 and 44.)

Gen. 10. When the letters ea come together in a word they very often stand for the long e sound but not always. (T.M. Unit 14, p. 168; text pp. 104-111; work bk. p. 49.)

Gen. 11. Sometimes the letters ea coming right together stand for the short e sound instead of the long e sound. (T.M. Unit 14, p. 168; text pp. 104-111; work bk. p. 58.)

Gen. 12. When the vowels ea come right before an r, they often stand for the vowel sound you hear in heard and learn. (T.M. Unit 14,

Gen. 13. The letters ea coming together may stand for the long e sound or the short e sound or the vowel sound you hear in learn. (T.M. Unit 14, p.

Gen. 14. When an i is the only vowel in a word and has one or more consonants after it, it usually stands for the short i sound. (T.M. Unit 17, p. 202; text pp. 125-134; work bk. p. 61.)

Gen. 15. When i is one of two vowels in a word and the other vowel is a silent e separated from the i by just one consonant, the i almost always stands for the long i sound. (T.M. Unit 17, p. 202; text pp. 125-134; work bk. pp. 64 and 66.)

Gen. 16. When an i is followed by r and another consonant, it doesn't stand for either the short or long i sound but for the vowel sound you hear in first and girl. (T.M. Unit 17, p. 202; text pp. 125-134; work bk. p.

Gen. 17. When a word ends in silent e, the e almost always must be taken away before the ending ing or er is added to make another word. (T.M. Unit 17, p. 203; text pp. 125-134; work bk. p. 65.)

Gen. 18. When the letters ie come together in a word, they usually stand for the long e sound as in stories and believe. But when they stand for the only vowel sound and come right at the end or are followed by just the letter s or just the letter d, they stand for the long i sound as in cried and flies. (T.M. Unit 18, p. 212; text pp. 135-139; work bk. p. 70.)

Gen 19. When o is the only vowel and it is followed by one or more consonants, it often stands for the short o sound. (T.M. Unit 21, p. 247; text pp. 165-170; work bk. p. 75.)

Gen. 20. When the letters ld come right after the o the o usually stands for the long o sound. (T.M. Unit 21, p. 247; text pp. 165-170; work bk. p. 78.)

Gen. 21. When o is followed by a single consonant and a silent e, the o very often stands for the long o sound. (T.M. Unit 21, p. 247; text pp 165-170; work bk. p. 85.)

Gen. 22. When the letters oa come right together in a word, they usually stand for the long o sound. (T.M. Unit 23, p. 269; text 183-187; work bk. p.

Gen. 23. We can add the letters y or ly to words we know to make new words. (T.M. Unit 28, p. 319; text p. 219; work bk. p. 104.)

Gen. 24. In many words i is used in place of y before the ending ed, es, or est. (T.M. Unit 28, p. 321; text p. 222; work bk. p. 105.)

Gen. 25. When the letter u is followed by a vowel or by a single consonant and a vowel, it usually stands for the long u sound, or for the vowel sound at the end of true. (T.M. Unit 29, p. 339; text pp. 224-247; work bk. p. 106.)

Gen. 26. When u is followed by just a consonant or by two or more consonants coming right together, it usually stands for the short u sound. (T.M. Unit 29, p. 339; text pp. 224-247; work bk. p. 106.)

The Houghton-Mifflin Reading Program

Second Grade Program

On We Go 2_2

Generalizations

Gen. 1. Ow may have the long o sound or the sound of ow as in owl. (T.M. Unit 1, p. 27; text p. 7; work bk. p. 1.)

Gen. 2. When there is only one vowel in a word and it is followed by one or more consonants, the vowel usually stands for the short sound. (T.M. Unit 1, p. 31; text p. 7; work bk. p. 1.)

Gen. 3. If a short word ends in silent e and there is only one other vowel in the word, the first vowel usually stands for the long sound and the final e is silent. (T.M. Unit 1, p. 3; text p. 7; work bk. p. 1.)

Gen. 4. When q and u come together they stand for the sounds that k and w usually stand for. The letter q is always followed by u. (T.M. Unit 2, p. 43; text p. 14; work bk. p. 4.)

Gen. 5. When the letters ou come together in a word they may stand for the sound you hear at the beginning of out (or you, enough, fourth, couldn't and thought). The sound to use is determined by the other words in the sentence. (T.M. Unit 2, p. 43; text p. 14; work bk. p. 4.)

Gen. 6. When the letters au or aw come right together in a word, they usually stand for the vowel sound you hear in saw or caught, except in words like away where w is a consonant. (T.M. Unit 3, p. 54; text p. 25; work bk. p. 8.)

Gen. 7. (Not stated but inferred) When certain vowel letters come together they usually stand for the long sound of the first letter. (T.M. Unit 3, p. 56

Gen. 8. When the vowels oi or oy come together in a word they practically always stand for the sound heard at the beginning of oil. (T.M. Unit 4, p. 65

Gen. 9. When a is followed by the letter r, it changes the vowel sound the a stands for so that it is not the long a sound or the short a sound but a sound that's a little like both of them.

A. Usually when the letters ar come together in a word and have a consonant other than another r coming right after them, they stand for the sounds you hear at the beginning of arm.

B. When they are followed by another r and then a vowel as in carry, they may stand for the sounds you hear in the word are or air. (T.M. Unit 5, p. 73; text p. 38; work bk. p. 16.)

Gen. 10. When the letters ur come right together in a word and are not followed by a silent e or some other vowel, they usually stand for the sound heard in fur, hurt, and purple. (T.M. Unit 6, p. 82; text p. 44; work bk. 20.)

Gen.11. When the letters ir have a vowel coming right after the r, the i usually stands for the long i sound, but when those letters come at the end of a word or have a consonant coming right after the r, they usually stand for the same sound that the letters ur stand for in burn. (T.M. Unit 7, p. 93; text p. 50, work bk. p. 24.).

Gen. 12. A. When a vowel comes right after the letters er in a word, you will not be able to tell just be looking at the word what sound the e stands for. You will have to use the sense of the other

words used with it.

B. When the letters er are not followed by a vowel or by another r, they practically always stand for the same sounds they stand for in her. (T.M. Unit 8, p. 101; text p. 58; work bk. p. 28.)

Gen. 13. When the vowel u comes right after a g and just before another vowel, it is usually silent and the g stands for the sound it stands for in guess and gum. (T.M. Unit 14, p. 163; text p. 115; work bk. p. 52.)

Gen. 14. The letters un are often added at the beginning of a word to make another word. When that is done, the new word means just the opposite of the word to which those letters were added (unhappy). (T.M. Unit 15, p. 175; text p. 121; work bk. p. 56.)

Gen. 15. Many of our words have been made by adding the syllable ful to a word. (T.M. Unit 17, p. 193; text p. 140; work bk. p. 65.)

Gen. 16. Sometimes a one syllable word has two vowels side by side, but both together stand for just one vowel sound. (T.M. Unit 20, p. 218; text p. 165; work bk. p. 65.)

Gen. 17. When the letters re are the first syllable of a word they usually stand for the sounds they stand for in report, return, remember. Often that syllable is added to a word to make another word. When it is, it usually adds the meaning of again or back or away. (T.M. Unit 22, p. 244; text p. 191; work bk. p. 84.)

Scott, Foresman and Company

Second Grade Program

Readers

Friends Old and New (2_1) and Workbook

The New More Friends and Neighbors (2_2) and Workbook

Time Intervals

Period	Material Covered
1	Review*
2	Lesson 1, p. 7, in F.O.N. to Lesson 16, p. 91, F.O.N.
3	Lesson 17, p. 91, F.O.N. to Lesson 32, p. 184, F.O.N.
4	Lesson 32, p. 185, in F.O.N. to Lesson 8, p. 40, M.F.N.
5	Lesson 9, p. 4, M.F.N. to Lesson 25, p. 138, M.F.N.
6	Lesson 25, p. 139, M.F.N. to Lesson 40, p. 235, M.F.N.

* The first six weeks in the second grade is used for review and takes the place of the readiness period in the first grade.

Scott, Foresman and Company

Friends Old and New (2_1)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. We add s, ed, ing, to known root words to make new words. (T.M. p. 27; text p. 7-11; wk. bk. p. 1 and 2.)

Gen. 2. We add 's to a word to show possession. (T.M. p. 27; text p.7-11; wl. bk. p. 1 and 2.)

Gen. 3. Two small words can sometimes make a new word. (T.M. p. 27; text 7-11; wk. bk. p. 1 and 2.)

Gen. 4. The apostrophe in a contraction indicates a letter has been left out when two words are shortened into one. (T.M. p. 47; text p.29-11; wk. p. 8 and 9.)

Gen. 5. If you see one vowel letter in a word and it is the letter i followed by one or more consonants, you usually hear the short sound of i or vowel sound of it. (T.M. p. 60; text p. 35-38.wk. bk. p. 12 and 13.)

Gen. 6. The letter i followed by r says the vowel sound heard in bird. (T.M. p. 65; text 39-43; wk. bk. 14-15.)

Gen. 7. (a). The letter y at the end of a one syllable word stands for the long i sound. (T.M. p. 69; text 44-50; wk. bk. p. 16 and 17.)

(b). At the end of a longer word, more than one syllable, the letter y does not represent the long i sound. (T.M. p. 69; text p. 44-50; wk. bk. p. 16 and 17.)

Gen. 8. In some words we double the final consonant letter of a root word before adding an ending. (T.M. p. 101; text p. 82-86; wk. bk. pp. 28, 29, 30.)

Gen. 9. (a). If the letter a is the only vowel letter in a word and it is followed by one or more consonant letters, the a usually stands for the short sound of the a in at. (T.M. p. 102; text p. 82-86; wk. bk. p. 28, 29, 30.)

(b). If a is followed by the consonant r, it has the sound of the a in car. (T.M. p. 102; text p. 82-86; wk. bk. p. 28, 29, 30.)

(c). If a is followed by the consonant l or w, it will have the sound of a in all or a in saw. (T.M. p. 102; text p. 82-86; wk. bk. p. 28, 29, 30.)

Gen. 10. If you see one vowel letter in a word and it is the letter e followed by one or more consonant letters, the e usually has the short sound or the sound of e in pet. (T.M. p. 108; text p. 87-90; wk. bk. p. 31, 32.)

Gen. 11. When the final e in a root word is dropped before the endings ed or ing are added, the pronunciation of the root word is not changed. (T.M. p. 113; text ;. 91-94; wk. bk. p. 33, 34.)

Gen. 12. If the vowel letter e is followed by the consonant r it has the vowel sound heard in her. It is the same as the vowel sound of it followed by r heard in bird. (T.M. p. 118; text p. 95-101; wk. bk. p. 35-36.)

Gen. 13. The suffix er is added to many root words, like help, to make words that mean "a person or a thing that does something". (T.M. p. 127; text p. 106-112; wk. bk. p. 39-40.)

Gen. 14. When there is only one vowel letter in a word and it is followed by one or more consonant letters, the vowel letter

usually stands for the short vowel sound. (T.M. p. 145; text p. 130-133; wk. bk. p. 47-48.)

Gen. 15. When there is only one vowel letter in a word and it is at the end of the word, the vowel letter usually stands for a long vowel sound. (T.M. p. 145; text p. 130-133; wk. bk. p. 47-48.)

Gen. 16. Two vowel letters together in a word may represent one vowel sound, the long vowel sound that the first vowel letter represents. (T.M. p. 167; text p. 155-100; wk. bk. p. 55-56.)

Gen. 17. If there are two vowel letters in a word, one of which is final e, preceded by a consonant, the first vowel letter usually stands for the long vowel sound and the final e is silent. (T.M. p. 172; text p. 161-166; wk. bk. p. 57-58.)

Gen. 18. If the only vowel letter in a word is i followed by the letters gh, the letter i usually stands for the long i sound and the letters gh are silent. (T.M. p. 177; text pp. 161-166; wk.bk. p.57-58)

Gen. 19. The letter y at the end of a word is often changed to i before adding the ending or suffix. (T.M. p. 200; text p. 197-203; wk. bk. p. 68-69.)

Scott, Foresman and Company

The New More Friends and Neighbors (2_2)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. If the only vowel letter is at the end of a word that letter usually stands for the long sound (he). (T.M. p. 70; text pp. 25-29; Think and Do pp. 8-9.)

Gen. 2. If there are two vowel letters together in a word usually the first stands for the long vowel sound and the second is silent (loaf). (T.M. p. 75; text pp. 30-35; Think and Do pp. 10-11.)

Gen. 3. When a single vowel letter in a word is followed by r the vowel is neither long nor short. (T.M. p. 85; text pp. 41-46; Think and Do p. 46.)

Gen. 4. If there are two vowel letters in a word, one of which is final e, the first vowel letter usually stands for a long vowel sound and the final e is silent (pile). (T.M. p. 89; text pp. 47-50; Think and Do p. 15.)

Gen. 5. We usually change a y at the end of a word to i before adding an ending but the i sound remains unchanged (party to parties). (T.M. p. 99; text pp. 58-63; Think and Do pp. 18-19.)

Gen. 6. We make new words which tell the name of a person who does something by adding er to some words. (T.M. p. 105; text pp. 64-69; Think and Do pp. 20-22.)

Gen. 7. Oy says the sound you hear at the end of boy. The letters oi are used to represent the sound you hear at the end of boy in the middle of a word (boil). (T.M. p. 120; text pp. 81-85; Think and Do p. 27.)

Gen. 8. When a word ends in silent e, the e is usually dropped before adding an ending. (T.M. p. 124; text pp. 86-91; Think and Do pp. 28-29.)

Gen. 9. If the only vowel letter is a followed by an l or a w, the a is usually neither long nor short. (T.M. p. 135; text pp. 92-96; Think and Do pp. 32-33.)

Gen. 10. When the vowel o is followed by the letter w in a word, it may have one of two sounds--the o sound as in crow or cow. (T.M. p. 140; text pp. 104-108; Think and Do pp. 34-35.)

Gen. 11. Sometimes the letter u is followed by the letter r. It has the same sound as ir and er. (T.M. p. 156; text pp 121-126; Think and Do pp. 41-42.)

Gen. 12. The letter c usually has the soft (s) sound when it is followed by e, i or y in a word. (T.M. p. 166; text pp. 133-138; Think and Do pp. 46-48.)

Gen. 13. When g is followed by an e or i in a word it usually stands for the j sound. (T.M. p. 166; text pp. 133-138; Think and Do pp. 46-48.)

Gen. 14. A. When e and a come together in a word, try the long e sound first. If that doesn't make a word we know, try another sound.

B. When the letters ea are followed by r in a word they may have one of three sounds. (T.M. p. 175; text pp. 146-151; Think and Do pp. 51-52.)

Gen. 15. When ai is followed by r it often stands for the vowel sound heard in stair. (T.M. p. 187; text pp. 160-164; Think and Do pp. 54-55.)

The Macmillan Reading Program

Second Grade

Readers

Enchanted Gates and Discovery Book

Shining Bridges and Discovery Book

Time Intervals

Period	Material Covered
1	Review
2	"Mrs. Hardy's Cat", p. 12 to "Hobby Day", En. G., p. 100.
3	"Patrick's Dog", p. 105, to "Making the Wishes", En. G., P. 198.
4	"I Keep Three Wishes Ready", p. 202, En. G. to "The Smoke", p. 51, Sh. Br.
5	"What To Do If You Get Lost", p. 57, Sh. Br. to "The Story Grows", p. 149, Sh. Br.
6	"What Is It?", p. 154, Sh. Br., to p. 251.

Macmillan Reading Program

Generalizations

Enchanted Gates(2)

Gen. 1. The letter, double o, may have one of several different sounds in a word, so we need to use the meaning of the sentence to tell which sound it is. (T.M. p. 41; text p. 12-14; Dis. Bk. p. 1-3.)

Gen. 2. (a). The last letter in a word is often doubled when ing is added as in running, but only one consonant is sounded. (T.M. p. 41; text p. 12-14; Dis. Bk. p. 1-3.)

(b). The last letter in a word is often doubled when ed is added as in stopped, but only one consonant is sounded. (T.M. P. 61, text p. 19-24; Dis. Bk. p. 6, 7, 8.)

(c). The last letter in a word is often doubled when er is added as in popper, but only one consonant is sounded. (T.M. p. 82; text p. 25-27; Dis. Bk. p. 9, 10, 11, 12.)

Gen. 3. When y is a vowel it has either the sound for long i or long e. (T.M. p. 45; text p. 12-14; Dis. Bk. p. 1-3.)

Gen. 4. When we see two e's in a word they always say the long e sound. (T.M. p. 66; text p. 19-24; Dis. Bk. p. 6, 7, 8.)

Gen. 5. The little mark (') called an apostrophe indicates that some letters have been left out, (I'll) which stands for I will. (T.M. p. 52; text p. 15-18; Dis. Bk. p. 4, 5.)

Gen. 6. Sometimes we use a little mark called a hyphen (-) when we put two words together to make a compound word. (T.M. p. 75; text p. 25-27; Dis. Bk. p. 9, 10, 11, 12.)

Gen. 7. (a). When we add ing or ed to words ending in silent e, we drop the silent e. (T.M. p. 100; text p. 31-35; Dis. Bk. p. 17-20.)

(b). When final e is added to short vowel words, the vowel sound changes. (T.M. p. 78; text p. 25-27; Dis. Bk. p. 9-12.)

Gen. 8. When we put the letters un before a word they usually mean not. An example of this would be the word unhappy which means not happy. (T.M. p. 109; text p. 39-43; Dis. Bk. p21-24.)

Gen. 9. When a single vowel letter is in the middle of a word, it usually stands for a short vowel sound. (T.M. p. 113; text p. 39-43; Dis. Bk. p. 21-24.)

Gen. 10. Final e on a one syllable word usually makes the internal vowel long. (T.M. p. 115; text p. 39-43; Dis. Bk. p. 21-24.)

Gen. 11. The letters er added to a word makes the word an agent. (T.M. p. 146; text p. 53-55; Dis. Bk. p. 33-36.)

Gen. 12. When all is placed before a word, we sometimes drop one l. (T.M. p. 179; text p. 72-75; Dis. Bk. p. 45-47.)

Gen. 13. In many words in which ea come together, the e is long and the a is silent. (T.M. p. 196; text p. 76-82; Dis. Bk. p. 48-50.)

Gen. 14. When a and r come together in a word the sound is usually the same as the one heard in farms. (T.M. p. 228; text p. 92-94; Dis. Bk. p. 57-59.)

Gen. 15. When g is followed by e or i, it usually sounds like j. (T.M. p. 238; text p. 95-99; Dis. Bk. p. 60-62.)

Gen. 16. When u is followed by r it has the same sound as the u in hurt and turn. (T.M. p. 251; text p. 100-104; Dis. Bk. p. 63-66.)

Gen. 17. When y comes at the end of a two syllable word it usually has the sound for short y. (T.M. p. 292; text p. 123-128; Dis. Bk. p. 77-79.)

Gen. 18. When the letter c is followed by an e it has the sound of s. (T.M. p. 323; text p. 138-143; Dis. Bk. 83-85.)

Gen. 19. When p and h come together in a word they say the f sound. (T.M. p. 326; text p. 144-147; Dis. Bk. p. 86-87.)

Gen. 20. When a word begins with kn we hear the n and the k is silent. (T.M. p. 326; text pp. 144-147; Dis. Bk. pp. 86-87.)

Gen. 21. We make new words by adding en to some words we know (fallen). (T.M. p. 378; text pp. 171-173; Dis. Bk. pp. 102-104.)

Gen. 22. The schwa sound for a sounds like uh (ago). (T.M. p. 391; text pp. 175-179; Dis. Bk. pp. 105-106.)

Gen. 23. Sometimes ea has the short e sound (head). (T.M. p. 399; text pp. 180-184; Dis. Bk. pp. 107-111.)

Gen. 24. We can make new words by adding n to words we know (known). (T.M. p. 400; text pp. 180-184; Dis. Bk. pp.107-111.)

Gen. 25. The letters ow may have the sound you hear in show or now. (T.M. p. 400; text pp. 180-184; Dis. Bk. pp. 107-111.)

Gen. 26. We make new words by adding ness to some words we know. (T.M. p. 439; text pp. 195-201; Dis. Bk. pp. 118-121.)

Gen. 27. We sometimes add es to words to make them mean more than one. (T.M. p. 442; text pp. 195-201; Dis. Bk. pp. 118-121.)

Gen. 28. When y comes at the end of a one syllable word it has the long sound of y or the i sound. At the end of two syllable words it has the short y sound (short i or long e). (T.M. p.

Gen. 29. When two like consonants are in the middle of a word the sound of the bowel before them is usually short (better). (T.M. p. 460; text pp. 206-210; Dis. Bk. pp. 123-124.)

Gen. 30. When i is followed by r in a word it has neither the long nor the short sound. (T.M. p. 477; text pp. 216-220; Dis. Bk. pp. 127-129.)

Gen. 31. U always follows q and says the letters together. Qu says the sound of kw. (T.M. p. 508; text pp. 230-233; Dis. Bk. pp. 134-136.)

Gen. 32. When w is followed by r in a word (wr) the w is silent and we hear only the r sound. (T.M. p. 508; text pp. 230-233; Dis. Bk. pp. 134-136.)

Macmillan Reading Program

Shining Bridges (2_2)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. When two vowels appear together the long sound of the first is heard and the second one is silent. (T.M. p. 49; text pp. 16-19; Dis. Bk. 3-5.)

Gen. 2. On words ending in y we change the y to i before adding es or ed. (T.M. p. 54; text pp. 16-19; Dis. Bk. 3-5.)

Gen. 3. A single vowel between two consonants has a short vowel sound. (T.M. p. 69; text pp. 23-26; Dis. Bk. 8-10.)

Gen. 4. Final e gives the preceding vowel a long vowel sound. (T.M. p. 69; text pp. 23-26; Dis. Bk. 8-10.)

Gen. 5. Q is always followed by u and says the sound of kw. (T.M. p. 83; text pp. 27-31; Dis. Bk. 11-13.)

Gen. 6. The sound represented by a is changed when a is followed by r (ar). (T.M. p. 97; text pp. 35-37; Dis. Bk. 16-18.)

Gen. 7. Some two-syllable words have the final consonant doubled when an ending is added. (T.M. p. 110; text pp. 39-43; Dis. Bk. 19-20.)

Gen. 8. The final e on a word must be dropped before the ending er is added. (T.M. p. 110; text pp. 39-43; Dis. Bk. 19-20.)

Gen. 9. When i in a word is followed by the letter r its sound is neither long nor short. (T.M. p. 125; text pp. 48-50; Dis. Bk. 23-24.)

Gen. 10. The plurals of words ending in ch or sh are made by adding es. (T.M. p. 146; text pp. 57-62; Dis. Bk. 28-31.)

Gen. 11. When ge is at the end of a word the sound for j is usually heard. (T.M. p. 161; text pp. 63-68; Dis. Bk. 33-35.)

Gen. 12 A double medial consonant is a clue to both syllabication and and the short vowel sound in the first syllable. (T.M. p. 162; text pp. 63-68; Dis. Bk. 33-35.)

Gen. 13. The prefix im at the beginning of a word means not (impossible). (T.M. p. 164; text pp. 69-71; Dis. Bk. 36-37.)

Gen. 14. We make new words by adding ful to some words we know. (T.M. p. 170; text pp. 69-71; Dis. Bk. 36-37.)

Gen. 15. Double oo in a word may stand for either of two sounds as too or look. (T.M. p. 172; text pp. 72-74; Dis. Bk. 38-39.)

Gen. 16. In many words in which two different consonants come together you can divide the word between those consonants. (T.M. p. 185; text pp. 75-77; Dis. Bk. 40-42.)

Gen. 17. When c is followed by e it has the soft or s sound. (T.M. p. 192; text pp. 79-84; Dis. Bk. 43-44.)

Gen. 18. An apostrophe shows that some letters have been omitted in the word. (T.M. p. 214; text 94-97; Dis. Bk. 48-50.)

Gen. 19. When c is followed by a, o or u we hear the sound of k; but when c is followed by e, i or y we hear the sound for s. (T.M. p. 276; text pp. 121-127; Dis. Bk. 64-67.)

Gen. 20. When a vowel is followed by ck it usually has the short sound. (T.M. p. 308; text pp. 143-148; Dis. Bk. 76-78.)

Gen. 21. When the letters gh come together they are silent. (T.M. p. 336; text pp. 158-161; Dis. Bk. 83-84.)

Gen. 22. When a word begins with the letters wr only the sound for r is heard. (T.M. p. 347; text 162-165; Dis. Bk. 85-87.)

Gen. 23. The letters oi and oy say the same sound as in boy; oy says this sound at the end of a word; oi says it in the middle. (T.M. p. 349; text pp. 162-165; Dis. Bk. 85-87.)

The Harper and Row Basic Reading Program

Second Grade

Reader

All Through the Year (2)*

Time Intervals

Period	Material Covered
1	Review
2	p. 5 to p. 52.
3	p. 53 to p. 98.
4	p. 99 to p. 149.
5	p. 150 to p. 200.
6	p. 201 to p. 253.

* The Harper Row Series embraces four strands. For the second grade there is another book, From Fins to Feathers in strand two, which was unavailable. This should be taken into conderation when making a judgement as to the value of the generalizations presented in the Harper Row Series.

Harper and Row Basic Reading Program

Second Grade

All Through the Year (2)

Generalizations

Gen. 1. When we have two vowels in a word and one is an e at the end the e is usually silent and the first vowel says its name. (T.M. p. 68; text pp. 17-20; work bk. pp. 9-10.)

Gen. 2. We make new words by adding the endings s, ed, ing and er to words we know. (T.M. p. 78; text pp. 24-26; work bk. pp. 14-15.)

Gen. 3. Whenever you see a word that begins with a c followed by i or e, use the soft (s) sound of c to help get the word. (T.M. pp. 98 & 178; text pp. 42-48; work bk. pp. 26-27.)

Gen. 4. When two vowels come together in a one syllable word the first vowel is long and the second one is silent. (T.M. p. 108; text pp. 53-57; work bk. pp. 31-33.)

Gen. 5. We make new words by adding ly to words we know. (T.M. p. 113; text pp. 58-66; work bk. pp. 34-36.)

Gen. 6. Y has a long i sound on the end of words like fly and cry. (T.M. p. 118; text pp. 67-72; work bk. pp. 37-39.)

Gen. 7. Y has a short i sound on the ends of two-syllable words like happy. (T.M. p. 118; text pp. 67-72; work bk. pp. 37-39.)

Gen. 8. Before we add an ending to some words we must double the last consonant (hopped). (T.M. p. 127; text pp. 80-85; work bk. pp. 43-45.)

Gen. 9. When we put the letters un before a word they usually stand for not (lock, unlock). (T.M. p. 133; text pp. 86-90; work bk. pp. 46-47.)

Gen. 10. When the letters gh follow the letter i, the i is usually long and the gh is silent. (T.M. p. 140; text pp. 91-93; work bk. pp. 48-49.)

Gen. 11. We make new words by adding the letter n or the letters en to some words we already know. (T.M. p. 164; text pp. 112-119; work bk. pp. 60-62.)

Gen. 12. We make new words by adding ful or less to the ends of some words we know. (T.M. p. 189; text pp. 143-149; work bk. pp. 74-76.)

Gen. 13. G has its soft (j) sound when it comes before e or i. (T.M. p. 234; text pp. 197-200; work bk. pp. 102-103.)

Gen. 14. Some words end in s. We must add es to them to make them mean more than one. (T.M. p. 250; text pp. 211-218; work bk. pp. 108-110.)

TABLE V

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF GENERALIZATIONS OF SECOND GRADE PROGRAMS OF FOUR BASAL TEXTS: WITH TIME OF INITIAL PRESENTATION

Per.	Houghton-Mifflin	Scott, Foresman	Macmillan	Harper, Row
1.	Review	Review	Review	Review
2.	A as only vowel in word with 1 or more con. after it usually stands for the short vowel sound.	We add s, ed, ing to root words	Sounds of oo	Silent e at the end of a word, first vowel is long.
	When a word ends in silent e and is preceded by 1 or more con. the a is usually long.	's added to words	Double last letter before add. ing, ed, er.	Adding s, ed, ing, er to words we know.
	Adding er to known word	Compounds	Two sounds of y.	C followed by i or e
	Ay at end of word	Contractions indicated by apostrophe.	Double ee.	Macmillan (con.)
	Ai at end of word	Short i	An apostrophe indicates letters left out.	Final e.
	Short e , only vowel with one or more con. following.	i followed by r.	Uses of hyphen	er as agent ending.
	E followed by r.	Y at end of 1 syllable word is long Not so at end of longer words.	Adding ing or ed to words end. in sil. e.	Drop one l when all is add. before a word.
	E only vowel and at the end.	Double final con. and add ending.	Final e added to one vowel words changes the sound.	ea together
		a only vowel is short.	Un before a word.	a followed by r
		a followed by r. a followed by w or l	Single medial vowel usually short.	g followed by e or i.

TABLE V (con.)

Per.	Houghton-Mifflin	Scott- Foresman	Macmillan	Harper, Row
2.	Two ee's together	e as only vowel fol- by 1 or more con. the is usually short.		
3.	ea sometimes has the short e sound. ea followed by r. i as only vowel is short. i separated from silent e by one or more con. is llong. i followed by r. Rwmove silent e be- fore add. ending. Sounds of ie. o as only vowel and followed by 1 or more con. is short. o followed by ld is usually long	Drop final e before adding endings. e followed by r. er as an agent end. one vowel letter followed by 1 or more con. letters is usually short. Single vowel at end of word usually long. Two vowels together usually rep. the long sound of the first. Two vowels one final e, first is usually long, e silent. gh is usually silent when it follows i; the i is usually long.	u followed by r. y at end of 2 syll. word. c followed by e. Sound of ph together. In kn the k is silent. Adding en to words. The schwa sound for a. Short sound of ea. Add. n to make new words. Sounds of ow Adding ness to words.	Two vowels together first is long, second is silent. Adding ly to words. y has long sound at end of 1 syll. words. Y has short i sound at end of 2 syll. words. Double last con. before adding ending. Putting un brfore a word. When gh follows i the gh is silent and i is long.

Houghton-Mifflin(con.)

o followed by single con. and silent e is usually long.

Sound of oa in a word

TABLE V (con.)

Per.	Houghton-Mifflin	Scott,Foresman	Macmillan	Harper, Row
4.	Adding y or ly Using i in place of y before endings. U followed by a vowel or a single con. and vowel is usually long. U followed by l or more con. is usually short. Sounds of ow. One vowel followed by one or more con. is usually short. Short word ending in e with one other vowel the first vowel is usually long. Sound of qu Sounds of ou. Sounds of au or aw. When certain vowel letters come together they usually stand for the long sound of the first.	Change y to i . Only one vowel letter and at the end of the word the vowel is usually long. Sounds of oi and oy a followed by r. u followed by r.	Add es to some words to make them mean more than one. Sounds of y at the end of words. Vowel before like con. is short. i followed by r. Sound of qu In wr the w is silent. When 2 vowels come together the long sound of the first is heard. a followed by r. Drop final e before adding ending. ir followed by a vowel usually has the long i sound.	We make new words by adding ful or ness to words we already know. We make new words by adding n or en to words we know. When a vowel comes right after the letters er in a word you will not be able to tell what sound the e stands for by looking . Use the sense of all words

TABLE V (con.)

Per.	Houghton-Mifflin	Scott, Foresman	Macmillan	Harper, Row
5.	u after g and before another vowel. un at the beginning of a word. Adding the syllable ful to a word. Letters re at the beginning of a word.	When a single vowel is followed by r the is neither long nor short. Adding the ending er to show an agent. Sounds of oi and oy. Drop silent before adding an ending.	The plurals of words ending in ch or sh are made by adding es. When ge is at the end of a word the sound for j is usually heard. Clues of double medial consonant.	Sound of g when followed by e or i. Per 6. Harper,Row To make plurals for words ending in s add es to base word.
6.		A followed by l or w. Sounds of ow. u followed by r. c followed by e, i, y. g followed by e or i.	Prefix im at beginning of words. Adding ful Sounds of oo When two con. come together divide between the consonants.	
Per. 6.		When e and a come together in a word try the long e sound first. ea followed by r may have one of three sounds. ai followed by r.	Sounds of c when followed by certain vowels. A vowel followed by ck is usually short.	Per. 6. Macmillan gh is usually silent Sounds of oi and oy

COMBINED LIST OF SPECIFIC VOWEL GENERALIZATIONS
TAUGHT IN FOUR BASAL SECOND GRADE TEXTS

When two vowels appear together, the long sound of the first is heard and the second one is silent. (Mac. 1) (S.F. 19_1; 2_2; 14_2 15_2) (Mac. 13,23) (H.M.- 4_1; 5_1; 10_1; 13_1; 22_1; 7_2; 16_2) (HR-4)

On words ending in y, we change the y to i when we add es, ed, ing. (Mac. 2) (SF - 5_2) (HM - 24.)

A single vowel between two consonants has a short vowel sound. (Mac. 3) (SF - 5_1; 9_1a; 10_1; 14_1) (HM - 1_1; 14_1; 19_1; 2_2)

When <u>ow</u> come together in a word the sound may be that heard in now or know. (Mac. 25) (S.F - 10_2) (H.M. - 1_2)

When two ee's come together in a word they always say the long e sound. (Mac - 5) (H.M. - 9).

A final e gives the preceding vowel a long vowel sound. (Mac. 4) (S.F. 15_1; 17_1; 1_2; 4_2) (H.M. - 2_1; 15_1; 21_1; 26_1; 3_2) (H.R. - 1)

When c is followed by a, o, or u, we hear the sound of k; but when c is followed by e, i or y, we hear the sound of s. (Mac. 19) (S.F. - 12_2) (H.R. - 3)

If the only vowel letter is at the end of a word, that letter usually stands for the long vowel sound, as in he. (S.F. - 1_2) (H.M. - 8_1)

When a, e, i, o, or u is followed by an r, the sound is neither long nor short. (Mac. 9, 16) (S. F. - 6_1; 12_1; 3_2 ; 11_2)
(H.M.- 7_1 ; 16_1 ; 9_2 ; 10_2 ; 11_2 ; 12_2)

When g is followed by i, e, or y, the sound of j is usually heard. (Mac. 11) (S.F.- 13_2) (H.R.- 13)

Y at the end of a two syllable word usually says the long e sound. (Mac.- 4) (S.F.- 7) (H. R.- 6, 7)

TABLE VI

VOWEL GENS. APPEARING IN TWO OR MORE OF THE FOUR BASAL TEXTS STUDIED; DEGREE OF UTILITY WITHIN THE GRADE LEVEL IN WHICH IT WAS INTRODUCED (SECOND).

Generalizations	Text	No. of wds. to which Gens. seem to apply.	Except.	Degree of Util.
When two vowels appear together, long sound of first e heard and the second one is silent.	H.M.	321	220	31%
	S.F.	174	96	45%
	H.R.	159	91	43%
	Mac.	381	171	55%
On wds. ending in y we change the y tc i when we add es or ed.	H.M.	33	4	88%
	S.F.	16	0	100%
	Mac.	32	0	100%
A single vowel between 2 consonants has a short vowel sound. (1 syllable wds. only)	H.M.	249	69	72%
	S.F.	145	28	80%
	Mac.	189	42	78%
When ow comes together in a wd. the sound may be that heard in now or know.	H.M.	44	0	100%
	S.F.	11	0	100%
	Mac.	27	0	100%
	H.R.	---	---	---
When 2 e's come together in a wd. they always say the long e sound.	H.M.	22	3	86%
	S.F.	---	---	---
	Mac.	23	0	100%
	H.R.	---	---	---
A final e gives the preceding vowel a long vowel sound.	H.M.	85	21	74%
	S.F.	66	9	85%
	H.R.	37	8	78%
	Mac.	84	17	80%
When c is followed by a, o, or u we hear the sound of k; but when c is followed by e, i, or y, we hear the sound of s.	H.M.	---	---	---
	S.F.	54	0	100%
	Mac.	112	0	100%
	H.R.	53	0	100%
If the only vowel letter is at the end of the wd. that letter usually stands for the long vowel sound as in he.	H.M.	19	4	79%
	S.F.	7	1	85%
	Mac.	---	---	---
	H.R.	---	---	---

TABLE VI
(continued)

Generalizations	Texts	No. of wds. to which Gens. seem to apply.	Except.	Degree of Util.
When a, e, i, o, or er in a wd. is followed by an r, the vowel is neither long nor short.	H.M.	303	4	99%
	S.F.	124	3	98%
	Mac.	225	5	98%
	H.R.	---	---	---
When g is followed by i, e, or y the sound of j is usually heard.	H.M.	---	---	---
	S.F.	9	4	46%
	Mac.	30	10	67%
	H.R.	7	2	71%
y at the end of a 2 syllable wd. usually says the long e sound.	H.M.	---	---	---
	S.F.	49	0	100%
	Mac.	57	0	100%
	H.R.	15	0	100%

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

TABLE V pp. 71-74 is quite different in make up to TABLE II p.35 which presented the same information from the first grade study.

Houghton-Mifflin and Scott, Foresman begin the second grade program with a consistently steady introduction of vowel generalizations. Houghton-Mifflin takes up both the long and short sounds of a, the digraphs ay and ai, as well as some of the sounds of e. Scott, Foresman begins with the short i , i followed by r , the sound of y at the end of a word, and begins to present the sounds of a. The Macmillan series begins with the digraph(vowel) oo, takes up the two sounds of y, the [illegible] vowel digraph ee and then the effect of final e on the preceding vowel; a generalization on medial vowels, the vowel digraph ea, a followed by r, and g followed by e or i.

In the third period Houghton-Mifflin increases the number of generalizations introduced while the other three series seemingly hold to approximately the same number.

Scott, Foresman and Harper, Row introduced two generalizations each in period four. The Macmillan series continued to present vowel generalizations in much the same ratio as before. Houghton-Mifflin presented its heaviest load in this period.

Harper, Row presented one generalization in each of the fifth and sixth periods. Houghton-Mifflin presents four generalizations in period five and none in period six. Scott, Foresman and Macmillan continue to introduce a fairly heavy program of generalizations in

period five but they, too, drop the load to a minnimum in the last period.

The list of generalizations on p. 75 are those found to be common to two or more of the four series studied. The numerals indicate the number of the generalization in the list for a particular series, the sub numerals indicate in which book of the second grade series the generalization was found. The table shows that some series use a number of steps in developing a generalization; it may also indicate the number of times a generalization is repeated in a series.

TABLE VI p. 78 shows the percent of utility in the second grade is not as high for the generalizations common to two or more series as it was in the first grade. It also shows that three of the series fail to meet the first of Clymer's criteria (twenty words in the word list to which the generalization might conceivably apply). One series fails in this in regard to four generalizations, another to two, and another to one.

While the degree of utility is not as good for some series as for others on the same generalization , it does meet Clymer's criteria in all but two of the generalizations. The two generalizations not yielding a 75% utility are; 1)When two vowels appear together the long sound of the first is heard and the second one is silent. 2) When g is followed by e, i, or y the sound of j is usually heard. Such words as get, give etc. could account for this in the primary grades.

In this study as well as in the first grade study the r controlled vowels brought the percent of utility down.

Conclusions. The results of this study tend to confirm the existence of those premises set forth in the importance of the study on p.6 of the first grade study, namely:

1) There is inconsistency among the basal readers in the number of generalization taught in a specific grade;

2) In the time of presentation of said generalizations;

3) In the sequence of the generalizations ;

4) In the degree of difficulty of the generalizations chosen.

Thoughts for the readers consideration..

1) Is it likely that the authors of basal series are voltarily going to circumscribe their programs by a list of generalizations which must or must not be included in the program of a certain grade? This could result in a more conforming, less exciting program than ever before.

2) Where should the responsibility for the placement of certain skills within the framework of the educational program fall?

3) Since the vowel variants are the obstacles when it comes to applying phonic generalizations might it not be a good to acquaint the child with some of these before the more regular generalizations are drawn?

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